VOL 11 No 7 JULY 1981

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Published for British Information Services by
Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London
Annual subscription including postage and index £18.60

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GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

Northern Ireland

The intention to set up a Northern Ireland Council composed of people already elected to other representative bodies, which would advise the Government on Northern Ireland affairs, has been announced by the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland. His proposal was outlined during a House of Commons debate on the renewal of the emergency provisions and the continuation of direct rule in which he reviewed the security situation, discussed the system of trial for terrorist offences, referred to the condemnation of the hunger strikers by the Irish Roman Catholic bishops and spoke of the development of relations with the Irish Republic. Following efforts by the Irish Commission for Justice and Peace to bring about an end to the hunger strike, the Secretary of State has described to prisoners what the regime would be for those ending the strike.

Northern Ireland Council

The establishment of a Northern Ireland Council was proposed by the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland, Mr Humphrey Atkins, in a debate in the House of Commons on 2 July (*Hansard*, Vol 7, Nos 133 and 134, cols 1020–126) on a motion to renew for a further six months the Northern Ireland (Emergency Provisions) Act 1978 and to extend for another year the Northern Ireland Act 1974 which provides for the direct rule of Northern Ireland. Mr Atkins said that direct rule had worked well over the past seven years and was generally regarded as being fair between one section of the community and another. It was not accused of having the sectarian bias that earlier central and local authorities were alleged to have had in the past. All the political parties in Northern Ireland, however, had been seeking an alternative way of running the Province and successive Governments had made serious and comprehensive attempts to find a way forward that would command general acceptance. Exhaustive discussions over the past two years had led him to the conclusion that it was not yet possible to confer executive or legislative powers upon a representative Northern Ireland body. A body holding such powers would have to be acceptable to both parts of the community and the basis for that acceptability still did not exist. There was, however, a pressing need to re-engage people in Northern Ireland in political matters and in the social and economic issues that most directly affected their lives. He therefore proposed to set up, by administrative act, a representative Northern Ireland Council which would be composed of persons already elected by the voters of Northern Ireland to other representative bodies – to the House of Commons, to the European Parliament and to the 26 Northern Ireland district councils. In making detailed arrangements for setting up the Council, which he hoped would be convened about the end of the year, he would take account of comments of representatives of the Northern Ireland political parties before presenting his final proposals to Parliament.

Mr Atkins said he envisaged a council composed of perhaps 50 representatives from the Northern Ireland Members of Parliament, Members of the European Parliament and district councillors. Nominations would be sought from the Northern Ireland political parties which had been shown in recent elections [district council elections held in May] to have a substantial following. Parties would be asked for a specific number of nominations related to their electoral strength. Facilities would be provided at the Parliament Buildings, Stormont, and the Council would decide upon its own procedures, including whether to deliberate in public. Members would be paid an attendance allowance.

The Council would perform a positive role in three main areas. First, it would consider and report on the activities of the Northern Ireland government departments, and Mr Atkins would refer specific matters to it for its views. He would make relevant information available to the Council which might form committees to deal with particular tasks. Secondly, he would invite the Council to scrutinise proposals for legislation affecting Northern Ireland so that account could be taken of local views. Thirdly, he would invite the Council to consider the future government of Northern Ireland and what proposals might prove to be acceptable to both parts of the community.

Security

Before presenting his proposals for a Northern Ireland Council Mr Atkins spoke of the security situation. The Government was doing what it could to achieve normality, he said. There had been a distinct change in the nature of army operations over the past few years and the army now acted only in support of and at the request

of the police. The gradual decrease in violence, which began in 1977, continued over the succeeding four years with the result that 1980, although far from peaceful, was the least violent year since 1971. The first four months of 1981 saw a continuation of this generally downward trend but the impending death of Robert Sands at the end of April (see p 131) was the signal for an outbreak of street violence. Although spasmodic, and never as widespread as the media sometimes portrayed them, these outbursts became particularly intense on occasions and presented the security forces with a formidable problem. They were accompanied by a fresh surge of terrorist attacks which were continuing. Mr Atkins said he did not believe that the events of the past two months were a permanent setback. He was sure that the security policy followed by successive governments over recent years was right; the policy was that those who broke the law were dealt with according to the law. He understood those who asked why the police or the army did not use more drastic measures to stop men of violence. But the bedrock of a free and democratic society was the fair and impartial enforcement of the law by the security forces; one could not uphold the law by stepping outside it. The Government had to ensure that the security forces had all the necessary resources to enable them to combat those seeking to undermine society. He was assured that at present they had all they needed in the way of manpower and equipment. An essential part of their resources was the legal powers with which they sought to maintain law and order. He was not persuaded that at present the emergency provisions should be allowed to lapse.

Trials for Terrorist Offences

Concern had been expressed recently, said Mr Atkins, about the system of trial for terrorist offences in Northern Ireland, notably about the absence of juries. The reason for the introduction of this system had been the intimidation of jurors. Regrettably, nothing had happened to suggest that this risk was any less now than some years ago and he believed that the re-introduction of jury trials would be against the interests of justice. Notwithstanding the absence of a jury, the basic principles of the administration of justice held good in the so-called 'Diplock courts'[1] as in any others. In particular, the defendant was tried in open court; the press were present and free to report the proceedings fully; there were clear and fair rules of evidence. The onus of proof rested squarely on the prosecution and, unlike in jury trials, the accused had an unfettered right of appeal. He could insist on having his case examined by a total of four judges [an appeal would be heard by three judges]. These were substantial safeguards for the accused by any standards.

Hunger Strike

Mr Atkins referred to the possibility of further demonstrations and violence if more hunger strikers died (see p 161).[1] The Government's position on the hunger strike should now be clear to everyone. He had issued a statement on 30 June in which he repeated the position.[2] He stood unequivocally for the rule of law. He wanted to see those who broke the law arrested and, if convicted of serious offences, to be put in prison for the protection of the law-abiding public. Whatever crimes had been committed, however, he believed in the humane treatment of prisoners. The facilities in Northern Ireland prisons had no parallel in Europe and were available to assist prisoners to live a good and useful life when released. He had said before that the Government was committed to maintaining and improving the prison regime in whatever ways were practical and as resources allowed, provided such changes did not amount to conceding the substance of the political status which the prisoners had always demanded. He respected the continuing humanitarian interest of the Irish Catholic bishops and bodies such as the Irish Commission for Justice and Peace (see below) and considered very carefully the opinions of such responsible bodies. He recognised the sincerity of their efforts. Unfortunately, the intransigent statement of the Provisional IRA the previous day made it quite clear, in response to his own statement, what it was that those directing the hunger strike were seeking: they wanted the five demands, which added up to political status. The Government would never accept that political motives justified violent crime. The European Commission of Human Rights, in its decision of June 1980, found that the status of political prisoners was a status to which the prisoners were not entitled under national law, under the European Convention or under existing norms of international law. The Government's stand upheld a principle of international validity. That was why no single government in the free world had suggested that political status should be conceded.

Mr Atkins said he applauded the forthright condemnation by the Irish Catholic bishops,[3] not only of the self-inflicted violence of those engaged in the hunger strikes but of those evil men outside the prison who played their part in directing these actions. Parents, relatives and friends of the hunger strikers should tell them that any further

[1]The system of trial by a single judge was introduced in 1973 following the recommendation of an independent commission chaired by the eminent jurist, Lord Diplock. It became necessary because of the intimidation of jurors and witnesses.

[1]A fifth hunger striker, Mr Joseph McDonnell, who was sentenced for firearms and ammunition offences, died on 8 July on his sixty-first day without food and on 13 July, Mr Edward Hurson, who had been sentenced for causing explosions and other explosives offences, died after 46 days without food. Following each of these deaths a further prisoner started to refuse food so that the number of hunger strikers remained at eight.

[2]In a statement on the prison regime issued in Belfast Mr Atrkins said that the Government could not confer political status on a group of prisoners by giving them a set of privileges that would differentiate them from others. The prison authorities must retain control over how prisons were run but the Government was committed to improving further an enlightened and humane regime with flexibility in its administration. The statement gave details of those aspects of prison life related to by the prisoners' 'five demands' (see p 161): prison work and activities; association; clothing; visits and letters; and remission.

[3]A statement was issued by the Irish Roman Catholic bishops on 17 June in which they condemned violence of all kinds in Northern Ireland, and said that the hunger strike had led to increasing polarisation within the community.

deaths would be futile. They would not cause the Government to grant their demands but would merely be used by evil men as the pretext for further violence.

Relations with the Irish Republic

One positive achievement of the last year had been the development of relations with the Irish Republic. In certain matters there was a community of interest and neither country could be untouched by events in the other. Since the Prime Minister met the former Irish Prime Minister last December the unique relationship between the two countries was being developed. In matters of trade, transport, energy and agriculture there were links; in security both countries faced the common enemy of terrorist violence. In European and world affairs, though some interests might diverge, the basic philosophy was the same; both economies faced the twin evils of inflation and unemployment. The past seven months had been of real and lasting value to both countries. The Government had not sought to negotiate the constitutional future of Northern Ireland. The objective had been to improve relations between two countries that were historically, geographically and economically linked and between which misunderstandings were not only undesirable but dangerous.

Opposition View

Mr Don Concannon, Opposition spokesman on Northern Ireland, said that he regretted that no political process had been found to bring the conflict in Northern Ireland to an end. Where two communities were divided by culture and religion as well as by political sympathies, no easy settlement was possible. The problem was further compounded by a history of distrust and suspicion on which were superimposed the continuing activities of terrorist groups which tried to manipulate the population by fear and intimidation. For the present the Opposition did not seek any immediate alternative to direct rule and welcomed the Government's proposals for improving the government of Northern Ireland. He said that a Labour Party study group had been set up to work out a credible policy on Northern Ireland; the group's thinking reflected the belief that Ireland should, in the long term, by peaceful means and on the basis of consent, be united.

Mr Concannon moved an amendment to the motion on the renewal of the emergency provisions and direct rule to provide for an inquiry into the workings of the emergency powers. While the Opposition freely accepted the need to protect the community against terrorism it was deeply concerned about the erosion of civil liberties, he said. He considered the no-jury courts dealing with terrorist offences should be scrutinised as should the list of offences tried by such courts as well as certain other aspects of the emergency powers. An independent review could evaluate whether the conditions still existed to make special judicial processes unavoidable.

The amendment was defeated by 279 votes to 213 and the motion approving the continuation of the emergency powers and direct rule was carried by 268 votes to 45.

THE PRESENT PRISON REGIME

In a statement issued on 8 July the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland expressed his gratitude to the Irish Commission for Justice and Peace for its efforts towards ending the hunger strike. The Commission, a Roman Catholic organisation, had held, at its request, a series of discussions with Mr Michael Alison, Minister of State in the Northern Ireland Office, in order to clarify the Government's position on the prison regime, and had visited the prisoners on a number of occasions.

Mr Atkins said that his statement of 30 June made it clear that a particular set of prisoners could not be given preferential treatment and he welcomed an indication made by the prisoners on 4 July that this was not now one of their demands. In the last 12-18 months, partly but not solely in response to certain criticisms of the European Commission of Human Rights, the British Government had made a series of modifications in the regimes applicable to conforming and protesting prisoners, the most notable of which was the abolition, early in 1981, of prison uniform and its replacement by an issue of civilian-type clothing in various designs. Other changes (most of which had been rejected by the protesters) included additional letters and visits, extra association time and compassionate home leave. These adjustments constituted clear evidence of the Government's readiness to act flexibly over the question of prison regimes.[1]

Despite all the efforts which the Government had made since October 1980 Mr Atkins was persuaded by the Irish Commission for Justice and Peace that there was still doubt in the minds of prisoners about what in practice would happen if they gave up the hunger strike. He was therefore setting out in simple terms what was already available to conforming prisoners. There was scope for further development but not under duress. Mr Atkins' description of the prison regime, a copy of which has been given to all prisoners, is set out below.

What Happens when the Protest Ends?

1 Protesting prisoners have been segregated from the rest. Other prisoners are not segregated by religious or political or any other affiliation. If there were no protest the only reason for segregating some prisoners from others would be the judgment of the prison authorities, not the prisoners, that this was the best way to avoid trouble between groups.

2 Prisoners who give up their protest would get the association non-protesting prisoners now get, that is to say three hours each evening, all their weekends plus periods for exercise, physical education, games and meals. There is little immediate scope for expansion. The suggestions of the

[1]It was announced on 15 July that the Government had accepted an offer of the International Committee of the Red Cross to visit prisons in Northern Ireland to assess and, if necessary, make recommendations to improve the conditions of imprisonment there.

Commission for Justice and Peace that adjacent wings should share association in recreation rooms and exercise areas depends on satisfactory arrangements being made for supervising and controlling movement, and it would take time to arrange the necessary physical facilities for this.

3 During association prisoners would have the privilege of wearing their own clothes. At other times they would wear civilian-type clothing of a non-uniform kind. By comparison with most other western countries this is a liberal regime, but we would not rule out the possibility of further development.

4 All prisoners are in practice as well as in principle liable for domestic tasks inside and outside the wings, for example, for orderly duties and in the laundries and kitchens. No one will be excluded as of right from the liability to work in prison workshops. We will add to the range of activities so far as and as quickly as we can. The Commission for Justice and Peace have given us examples of such activities. We shall look closely at these but at the end of the day it will be for the prison authorities to decide what jobs a prisoner does.

5 Any prisoner who abides by the rules is already allowed eight letters, four visits and four parcels a month. Those giving up their protest would get this straightaway. And it is more than they have been asking for.

6 Fifty per cent remission is awarded for good behaviour. It is forfeited by those who breach prison rules by protesting. In practice prisoners who have given up their protest have had up to one-fifth of lost remission restored.

By-election and State of the Parties

Details of the result of a recent by-election and the present state of the parties in the House of Commons are given below.

The Labour Party retained the seat at Warrington in a parliamentary by-election on 16 July. The seat became vacant when its holder, Sir Thomas Williams, QC, was appointed a circuit judge. The Labour candidate, Mr E D H Hoyle won by a majority of 1,759 votes. The results were as follows:

E D H Hoyle (Labour)	14,280
R H Jenkins (Social Democratic with Liberal support)	12,521
S J Sorell (Conservative)	2,102

Eight other candidates, between them polled 605 votes; they and the Conservative candidate all lost their deposits; 67 per cent of the electorate voted.

State of the Parties

The state of the parties in the House of Commons is now as follows:

Conservative	335
Labour	253
Social Democratic	15[1]
Liberal	11
Scottish National	2
Plaid Cymru (Welsh Nationalist)	2
Official Unionist (Northern Ireland)	5
Democratic Unionist (Northern Ireland)	3
United Ulster (Northern Ireland)	1
Ulster Progressive Unionist (Northern Ireland)	1
Independent Socialist (Northern Ireland)	1
Vacant	2
TOTAL	631

The four remaining seats are held by the Speaker of the House of Commons and his three deputies who do not vote except in their official capacity in the event of a tie. The Government majority over all other parties is 41.

Representation of the People Act

The Representation of the People Bill received Royal Assent on 2 July.

The new Act's main purpose is to disqualify convicted prisoners who are sentenced for more than one year from standing for election to, or from membership of, the House of Commons for the period of their detention anywhere in Britain or the Irish Republic.[2]

The Act therefore adds a further category to the list of those disqualified from election to and membership of the House of Commons. In that respect, it represents a return to the position under the Forfeiture Act 1870 which disqualified convicted felons. The abolition of the distinction between felonies and misdemeanours by the Criminal Law Act 1967 led to the removal of the disqualification. The new Act empowers a returning officer to reject a nomination made on behalf of a prisoner who is serving a sentence of more than one year. Various changes have been made to the parliamentary elections rules, including minor changes to the timetable, to assist the returning officer in this duty.

[1]Since the formation of the Social Democratic Party in April with 14 MPs (see p 88), another former Labour MP has joined the Party.

[2]Mr Robert Sands, who was elected MP for Fermanagh and South Tyrone in April 1981, was serving concurrent terms of 14 and 10 years' imprisonment for firearms and ammunition offences (see p 88). Mr Sands, who was described as the leader of the Provisional IRA prisoners in Maze Prison, Belfast, died in May after a 65-day hunger strike (see p 131).

EXTERNAL AFFAIRS AND DEFENCE

Defence Review

The conclusions of a review into Britain's defence programme, which were announced in the House of Commons by the Secretary of State for Defence on 25 June, emphasise the Government's commitment, first, to the North Atlantic Alliance's aim of an annual 3 per cent growth in defence spending; secondly, to the decision to buy the Trident ballistic missile system; and, thirdly, to the strengthening of Britain's (and so the Alliance's) defences by making the most effective use of the resources available. The details of the review were published in a White Paper.[1]

The review involved a fundamental examination of all the Services' forward plans, capabilities, and resource requirements throughout the 1980s, particularly in the light of rising equipment costs, of changing technology, and of the increasing problems these presented in meeting the threat posed by the Warsaw Pact. In his statement (*Hansard*, Vol 7, No 128, cols 387-91) the Secretary of State for Defence, Mr John Nott, said that the review revealed a defence programme that was 'unbalanced and over-extended' and was creating severe cash problems. The only answer, he explained, was a move towards a better balance between all elements of the nation's defence – between nuclear and conventional, between front-line numbers and reserves, between quantity and quality in equipment, and so on. Further, the balance had to be determined in terms of real defence capability. Although it would be necessary to curb several plans and aspirations, the additional 3 per cent increase in spending, when channelled into a revised programme covering four years to 1985-86, would improve 'the combat endurance and the hitting power of [the] front-line forces in the decade to come'.

Referring to the Trident system, the replacement for Polaris (see p 233, 1980), the Defence Secretary said: 'No enhancement of . . . conventional forces could possibly prove of equal deterrent value. In a world where nuclear weapons cannot be disinvented, it is the United Kingdom's surest way of preserving peace.'

The White Paper

The White Paper begins with a warning that a major defence effort is crucial if the peace and freedom of the British people are to be safeguarded in a world where several areas are unsettled and turbulent and where the already massive Soviet military power is expanding even more in size, quality and reach (see pp 133, 134 and 135, 1981, on the annual defence estimates White Paper). That effort is based on Britain's contribution to the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO), and this is the Government's first priority. The real growth of 8 per cent in defence expenditure since 1978-79, and the planned growth of 3 per cent for both years 1982-83 and 1983-84 announced in March in full implementation of the NATO aim, are evidence of the Government's commitment. Moreover, the Government has since decided to implement the NATO aim for a further two years to 1985-86, in which year defence expenditure will be 21 per cent greater than in 1978-79. This, the White Paper points out, demonstrates Britain's resolve, during a period of economic difficulty, to maintain its vital priorities and its Alliance contribution. The Government, therefore, has no desire to cut defence expenditure, but is concerned to ensure that resources are spent to the best effect in terms of security.

To fulfil this responsibility, the White Paper explains, the defence programme will have to change, mainly for two reasons. One is that existing plans and force structures simply outstrip even the increased resources the Government has allocated. A factor here is the rising cost of the increasingly sophisticated equipment needed to match the mounting Soviet effort; another related factor is that the current force structure into which the new equipment is to be channelled is too large for any reasonable and sustainable resource allocation.

A second reason for change is the effect that technological advance, in particular the ever-increasing ability of modern weapons to find accurately and inflict greater damage on targets at even longer ranges, is having on the vulnerability of major weapon platforms such as surface ships and aircraft. It is clear from this that the balance of Britain's investment between platforms and weapons has be altered in favour of the latter, so as to give more resources to the Services' hitting and staying powers in combat. This requires a new force structure geared to the new balance and one that Britain can afford to sustain with modern weapons and equipment. Moving in this direction, the White Paper states, would be by far 'the better way of spending money for real security value'. It would provide

[1] *The United Kingdom Defence Programme: The Way Forward.* Cmnd 8288. HMSO, £1·70. ISBN 0 10 182882 0.

the alternative to 'overstretch, inadequacy and waste . . . [and to] the certainty of attempting too much and achieving too little'. The role of Britain's defence forces both within and outside NATO remain those outlined in the annual defence statement (see pp 133-6, 1981), and the White Paper stresses that there is no question of giving up any one of these commitments; it is rather one of finding the best way of fulfilling them with the greater resources at hand.

Nuclear Forces

Reaffirming the Government's intention to maintain and modernise Britain's crucial nuclear strategic capability, the White Paper states that the purchase of the Trident system is the only cost-effective means of achieving this. No alternative application of defence resources could possibly approach this in real deterrent insurance. The operation of the strategic force will remain with the Royal Navy as its first and vital task.

Defence of Britain

With Britain being both a forward base in emergency for receiving forces from across the Atlantic and a main base for its own reinforcements for Europe and for its maritime defence, the White Paper emphasises the need to increase the effort in direct home defence. As more fighter aircraft are essential, in addition to the current plans for the introduction of the Tornado F2 and Nimrod early warning planes, two Phantom squadrons are to be retained as the Tornado enters service in the mid-1980s. For local defence the number of Hawk trainer aircraft carrying Sidewinder missiles is to be doubled to 72, while the last 20 of the 220 Tornados ordered may be switched to air defence. The number of VC10s, to be used largely as tankers, is to be increased, thus enabling the patrol time and range of the fighter force to be multiplied. Finally, to exploit reserve forces, a substantial expansion in strength of the Territorial Army from 70,000 to 86,000 for use both at home and in the Federal Republic of Germany is planned. Other plans in this area include an increased use of the Royal Auxiliary Air Force Regiment in ground defence of Britain's airfields and, as part of the Government's programme to build up a balanced mine counter-measures force, the construction of new minesweepers for the Royal Navy Reserve.

Defence of Central Europe

The British contribution to the defence of Europe is so important to NATO's military position and its political cohesion that it has to be maintained. As the White Paper says, 'The Central Region is the Alliance's heartland in Europe; the forward defence of the Federal Republic is the forward defence of Britain itself.' Therefore, the Brussels Treaty commitment of maintaining land (some 55,000 troops) and air forces in Europe is reaffirmed. However, the structure of the four armoured divisions of two brigades each of the British Army of the Rhine (BAOR) is to be organised into three divisions of three brigades each. One of the brigades will be stationed normally in Britain, together with a new reserve division formed primarily from the Territorial Army and committed to the reinforcement of BAOR.

The major projects in the progressive re-equipment of BAOR will continue (for details see pp 135 and 137, 1981) though the timing or scale of some will have to be modified, partly to restrain cost but also to allow further enhancement of BAOR's war stocks and ammunition to improve its combat endurance. In particular, the Government plans to buy more Milan anti-tank missiles. Qualitative improvements are to be made to the Chieftain and in time to the Challenger, the new main battle tank which is to be issued to four regiments. Battlegroup air defence will be strengthened by equipping three batteries with the tracked Rapier missile system.

Turning to the air defence of Europe and the Government's desire to exploit the unique qualities of the Harrier, the White Paper announces the decision to buy, subject to satisfactory negotiations, 60 of the Anglo-American development of the Harrier, the AV8B. This will also bring about £1,000 million worth of orders to British industry. Deployment of the Tornado will proceed as planned. The White Paper reaffirms Britain's intention of developing the JP233 airfield-attack weapon, and, in the longer term, to acquire other weapons for attacking armoured forces and air defences. As to the replacement of the Jaguar, it points out that this cannot be afforded in the near future, but work and discussion with potential partners on future combat aircraft will continue.

Maritime Defence

This, the White Paper states, presented the most complex and difficult problems for the review. While a major contribution must continue (see pp 135-6, 1981), a fundamental re-think about how Britain can cost-effectively shape its future share has to be made. It cannot afford to maintain large numbers of every type of surface weapon platform at the highest standards which the adversary's developing capability requires. Furthermore, the White Paper notes the power of maritime air systems and of submarines in tactical offensive operations and adds: 'If we are to maintain and improve these capabilities, we cannot at the same time sustain a surface fleet of the present size, with its heavy overheads, and continue to equip it with ships of the costly sophistication needed for protection in independent operations against the most modern Soviet air-launched and sea-launched missiles and submarines.' It is stressed, none the less, that Britain still needs a large and versatile ocean-going surface fleet suited for a number of tasks. In the future, therefore, the most cost-effective maritime mix will be one which continues to enhance Britain's maritime air and submarine effort but also accepts a reduction in the size, scale and sophistication of the surface fleet and the need to break away from the practice of expensive mid-life modernisation. However, work on the existing programme of 20 ships [including two Invincible class carriers, seven Type 42 destroyers, three Type 22 frigates, and seven

Hunt class mine counter-measures vessels] over the next five years will continue.

In line with this improved balance the Nimrod fleet is to be increased by three to 34, all to be equipped with the Sting Ray torpedo which will give them great striking power against submarines. For attack on surface ships a new air-launched guided missile, the Sea Eagle, is to be ordered (subject to contract). This is to be carried by the Buccaneer, which is to be retained in service, rather than the Tornado, which can now be employed in other roles. There will be, therefore, a considerable improvement in the Royal Navy's offensive and defensive air-launched missile capability for protection of ships against surface or air attack.

The number of nuclear-propelled attack submarines, the most powerful element in Britain's contribution to naval defence, will continue to increase, from the present fleet of 12 to 17. [The thirteenth, Trafalgar, the first of a new class, was launched recently and the order for the fourteenth is now being placed.] Work on a new class of diesel-powered submarines which may have a large export potential is to continue. These vessels, successors to the Oberon class will, if possible, be introduced at the rate of one a year. Of the surface fleet, *Ark Royal*, the second of the new anti-submarine warfare (ASW) carriers is to be completed but only two of three planned are to remain in service in the long term. The older ASW/commando carrier *Hermes* will be phased out as soon as *Ark Royal* becomes operational. As to the possible replacement of the Sea King helicopter no decision has yet been taken, but exploration of both collaboration with Italy and potential civil application is in progress.

At present some 59 destroyers and frigates are committed to NATO, the White Paper continues. This number is to be reduced to about 50 (including eight in the standby squadron), and will be achieved by the disposal of older and manpower-intensive ships (for example, from among the Rothesay and Leander classes) before expensive refits or modernisation take place. Other ships are to be put on standby without further modernisation. At the same time the Government will accelerate the entry into service of a new Type 23 ASW frigate, costing less than the £70 million needed to modernise a Leander frigate. Its design will reflect possible export considerations as well as Royal Navy needs. The question of going on with the Type 22 class, the seventh of which is being ordered at a cost of £125 million, is being studied. Production of the air-defence Type 42 destroyer is, however, to be stopped following the completion of the seven now under construction; plans for a major modernisation of the present seven afloat and for a successor type have been abandoned.

Finally, the existing three Royal Marine Commandos will be maintained – the Government regards their qualities of experience and versatility of great value in tasks in and beyond the NATO area – but the assault ships *Intrepid* and *Fearless*, whose replacement had already been considered unnecessary, are to be phased out earlier, in 1982 and 1984 respectively.

Beyond NATO

In co-ordination with the United States and Britain's other allies, the White Paper says, the Government intends to resume the practice of sending a substantial naval task group to areas beyond NATO – the South Atlantic, the Caribbean and the Indian Ocean, for example – to further national interest, support friends, meet specific British responsibilities, and in response to any Soviet threat. Measures will also be taken to enhance the out-of-area flexibility of Britain's ground forces (for other measures, see pp 136-7, 1981).

Service Manpower, Support and Employment

In order to achieve the more efficient balance in Britain's defence effort some reduction in service manpower and in civilian support is essential. By 1986, therefore, Royal Navy numbers will be cut by between 8,000 and 10,000 through surface fleet contraction and the abolition of various shore establishments. In the same period the Army will be reduced by about 7,000 and the Royal Air Force by about 2,500. On the civilian side, the sharpest changes will be felt in those areas supporting the surface fleet – bases, dockyards and depots – where refitting and modernisation of ships are to be greatly reduced. The naval base and the Royal Dockyard at Chatham will close in 1984, and there will be a significant reduction of work at Portsmouth. A substantial number of naval stores and fuel depots are to close. With other reductions in support infrastructure, civilian employment in the Ministry of Defence may be reduced from 228,000 to below 200,000. Referring to employment in British industry, the White Paper notes that, while job opportunities in some fields will decline, work in more advanced, technologically based industries will be generated as the total amount spent on defence procurement rises. The key to jobs in the defence industries lies increasingly with exports and with an ability to produce designs that are less sophisticated, less costly and more marketable world-wide.

The Way Forward

After indicating the Government's intention to consult its allies abroad and, at home, its employees, suppliers, and any others affected by the altered programme, the White Paper concludes that change is necessary; although the Government has taken hard decisions, they reflect the resolve 'to give defence the resources Britain's security demands; but equal resolve to see that these resources, which the nation cannot spare without much penalty elsewhere, are put to work in accordance with realistic, unsentimental and up-to-date judgment of what will be most relevant and effective in future years'.

European Community

Britain's assumption of the Presidency of the Council of Ministers, the Luxembourg meeting of the European Council, and the Community's

policy towards the developing world are described in this article.

BRITAIN'S PRESIDENCY OF THE COMMUNITY

On 1 July Britain assumed the Presidency of the European Community's Council of Ministers for a period of six months. Britain's objectives were set out on 8 July in a speech to the European Parliament by the Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs, Lord Carrington.

The Presidency

Noting that six months was a short time, Lord Carrington said that it was a mistake for any Presidency to assume the chair with exaggerated hopes, for it had only limited control of business and could not force the pace of progress made on the various issues facing the Community. He continued: 'The Presidency's task is to provide continuity with its immediate predecessors: to ensure that business is despatched with the maximum of efficiency and the minimum of fuss; and to work with a sense of purpose to bring about the consensus and compromise among all member states without which no steady rate of progress can be maintained.'

Another major responsibility of the Presidency and a vital ingredient to its success was the maintenance of good working relations with the other Community institutions. Accepting that part of the European Parliament's role was to discuss and criticise, Lord Carrington said that the British Presidency needed its support and wanted to be a partner in a joint enterprise. The Commission, also, was 'fundamental to the successful development of the Community', for its proposals formed the basis of all progress along the lines laid down by the Treaties.

The course of the British Presidency, noted Lord Carrington, would be deeply influenced by the economic and political environment, both in the Community and in the world outside. Uppermost in the minds of the citizens of member states were the undefeated and daunting evils of inflation and unemployment which had to be tackled with imagination and success. A Community response was also required on the problem of energy. In addition, financial resources available to the Community had nearly reached the limit laid down for them in 1970; decisions of far-reaching importance on the Community's policies and finance would have to be taken in the near future and these were made all the more necessary by the knowledge that two more European states (Spain and Portugal) were seeking membership.

The international environment was far from serene, for the shock caused by the Soviet Union's brutal invasion of Afghanistan had still not died away. Recalling the Soviet Union's interventions in Hungary in 1956 and Czechoslovakia in 1968, Lord Carrington said that the events in Poland were a continuous reminder that a crisis much nearer home could erupt at any moment with even more far-reaching consequences. However, the Soviet occupation of Afghanistan had 'brought a new awareness in the Third World of the advantages of partnership with the West and with Europe in particular'. Areas like the Middle East looked to Europe to play a fuller role and the Community's response had to be adequate.

Community Achievements

Commenting on the achievements of the Community, Lord Carrington recalled that 12 years ago the leaders of the six member states had understood the need to look beyond the immediate problems and to have a vision of the Europe they were trying to create. Consequently, the first enlargement had been achieved, an independent financial system adopted, and advances made in regional and social policies, the internal market, the establishment of the European Monetary System and environmental policies. The enlargements of 1973 and 1981 had widened the Community's horizons, made it more representative of the peoples of Europe, added to its international weight, and had enhanced stability and democracy in Europe.

The Community once more stood at a crossroads and decisions vital to its future were due to be taken. If success were to be achieved, Lord Carrington said, member states had to retain a vision of where Europe was going. He proposed therefore that further development should take the form of three elements, namely renewal, enlargement and identity. The Community required renewal of its activities in order to tackle the problems of the 1980s and beyond, a successful enlargement to include Spain and Portugal, and a conscious identity to ensure that it could have an impact on the events of the world outside through the active exercise of influence. The last required the Community to 'equip itself with the organisation needed to formulate common policies and give practical effect to them'.

The Budget

Lord Carrington said that the basis of renewal had to be the restructuring of the Community budget and a review of the Community's expenditure policies, and a major objective of the British Presidency was to achieve decisive progress on this in the six months ahead. There were, he suggested, three main elements that had to contribute to the required restructuring.

The first was the need for changes in the Common Agricultural Policy to discourage the production of surpluses and to limit the costs to which they gave rise. It was not right that about half of the Community's budget should be spent on the storage and disposal of surplus food: 'This is an expensive and wasteful anomaly that must be corrected—but not so as to undermine the principles of the . . . Policy or to lose the benefit Europe gains from having a healthy agricultural industry and security of food supplies.' Although the Community had to continue to support its agriculture, it had to be done more economically. This was a view shared and supported by a wide spectrum of political opinion in all member states.

Secondly there was also wide agreement that too small a share of the budget was devoted to other policies. In the 1950s it was reasonable to argue that agriculture was particularly in need of support, and that industry and services could look

after themselves under conditions of free competition provided by the common market. However, because of the recession, the relative security of income and employment which many farmers enjoyed was being denied to many other sectors of the economy. More Community resources were needed for regional development, rehabilitation and training, energy and perhaps new policies for industrial regeneration and urban renovation.

The third factor, Lord Carrington said, was that the pledge given in May 1980 that no member state should ever be faced with an unacceptable budgetary situation had to be fulfilled: 'That is not, of course, to say that every member state should receive from the Community ... a sum equivalent to that which it pays in. Policies have to be designed to be effective as policies, not just to ensure that their cost is equally shared out. But, if a Community based on consensus and the common good is to flourish and advance, then every member state has to be broadly satisfied that the Community's financial basis is sound and equitable.'

Noting that the Community was approaching the 1 per cent limit on value added tax contributions to its budget, Lord Carrington said that in a period when so many European governments were facing unprecedented budgetary and financial discipline, it was not surprising that many people considered that the Community too should live within its ceiling. In any case it was politically unrealistic to ask for an increase in resources until it was clear that the budget had been restructured to curb the excessive rate of growth of agricultural expenditure and to ensure that member states were not called upon to make unreasonable or unacceptable contributions to it. Account had also to be taken of the effects that membership of Spain and Portugal would have on the budget.

Industry and Services

Lord Carrington emphasised that the Community needed to keep abreast of the world outside and to develop its industrial base. If the fight against inflation and unemployment were to be won, the Community had to adapt its industrial capacity to take full advantage of advanced technology, an area where western Europe could and had to be among the leaders. Only in that way could new jobs be created and the Community's position in the world guaranteed. In addition, the restructuring of traditional industries such as steel, textiles and shipbuilding needed to continue so that they could compete profitably.

Renewal also meant completion of the common market which was an accomplished fact in agriculture and to a large extent in industrial products. Noting that the service sector was 'almost as great a source of wealth and employment as ... industry, Lord Carrington said that services such as insurance, banking and air travel deserved to share 'the advantages enjoyed by their colleagues in manufacturing industry'. If this were done, member states and their people would secure maximum benefit from membership of the world's largest area of free trade. Lord Carrington also said that Britain would press ahead on work to remove non-tariff barriers to trade in the Community.

Enlargement

Observing that the potential for enlargement of the Community was inherent in the Treaty of Rome, Lord Carrington welcomed the recent accession of Greece and looked forward to the admission of Spain and Portugal. It was the duty of member states to encourage and stabilise the new democratic systems in these countries by making a success of the negotiations so that their membership was soundly and fairly based. Although a further enlargement was bound to bring problems, and the institutional and economic implications of a Community of 12 member states would need to be tackled with imagination and goodwill, the accession of Spain and Portugal would strengthen the Community and not dilute or weaken the European idea.

External Economic Relations

Much of the impact of Europe's identity in the world outside came from the policies of the Community; as the world's largest economic unit in terms of gross domestic product and accounting for about 20 per cent of world trade,[1] it was a vital part of the world's economic system and had a vested interest in the preservation of open trading. The Community was working constructively to implement the 1979 Tokyo Round arising from the negotiations under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (see pp 156-8, 1979), and Lord Carrington welcomed the proposal for a ministerial level meeting of the contracting parties during 1982. The Community was also preparing its position for important negotiations over the extension of the multi-fibre arrangement: 'These negotiations are of great importance to the Community and to suppliers in the developing world and we must seek an outcome which takes account of their concerns while allowing our hard-pressed domestic textile industries to adjust in an orderly fashion to the changing patterns of world trade.'

Turning to the seven-power summits of the developing nations, Lord Carrington said that these made 'a major contribution to maintaining the orderly development of the world economy'. The Community would be represented at the July summit in Ottawa by both the Commission and the Presidency, and it would be working to maintain an open trading system without ignoring the difficulties posed by the trade policies of individual nation states. In particular the Community's trade relations with Japan were going through a difficult time; given the size of the Community's trading deficit with Japan and the problems caused by the concentration of Japanese exports in a few sensitive sectors, the Community had a good case to ask Japan for some restraint and a determined and conscious attempt to increase its purchases from Europe. At the same time the Community saw mutual benefit in a closer political partnership with Japan.

Emphasising that member states were closely concerned with developing countries, Lord Carrington pointed out that the Community had

[1]Excluding intra-Community trade.

pioneered mutually beneficial trade links with them: 'The Lomé Convention between the European Community and some 60 countries in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific is an admirable example of the way in which trade, aid and co-operation should be so blended together as to bring about the common advantage of the developed and developing world'. The Community was therefore 'well placed to make a contribution' to North-South discussions and it intended to play a constructive role in the United Nations conference on the least developed countries and on new and renewable sources of energy in August. The Mexico summit in the autumn would be attended by three Community member states, including the Presidency.

Lord Carrington pointed out that the Community was more than just an economic institution, and that it was understandable that other powers wanted to develop a relationship with it which was not exclusively economic or commercial. This had resulted, for example, in the Euro-Arab dialogue where contact between Community member states and those of North Africa and the Middle East could 'make a useful contribution to greater mutual understanding, and, eventually, to a solution of the conflicts of that area'. The Community also welcomed the increasingly close and friendly relationship with the Association of South-East Asian Nations and the long-standing and important relationship with the countries of Latin America. The admission of Spain and Portugal could only serve to reinforce Community links with Latin America, a region of the world that seemed set to expand in prosperity and influence. Britain hoped that the period of its Presidency would see important developments in these relationships.

Political Co-operation

Political co-operation (on foreign affairs matters not covered by the Treaties) had been one of the recent success stories of the Community, Lord Carrington stated, and was an embodiment of the principle that member states speaking as one had more effective influence than if they acted separately. Member states had pursued unanimously their objectives in successive conferences on security and co-operation in Europe and it was gratifying to see the growing impact of member states as a group at the United Nations. The habit of co-operation was 'firmly engrained' in foreign ministries at all levels, and a greater solidarity in times of crisis had increased the confidence and security of all member states.

More, however, needed to be done, for member states had proved better at reacting to crises than at taking initiatives designed to forestall or resolve them, and there had been times when Community reaction had been too weak and too late. Nevertheless, member states were learning from their mistakes, for on Poland political co-operation had worked smoothly: 'The statements of the European Council at critical moments have served to put on record Europe's determination to react firmly and decisively should Poland's right to settle [its] own affairs be interfered with. The rapid decision of the Community to provide food at special prices made a useful contribution at a time of particular difficulty for the Polish government and people.'

Turning to the Middle East, Lord Carrington said that Community action had marked a new departure since it was not merely reacting to a crisis, but trying to make a positive and substantial contribution to resolving a long-standing problem. The importance of the area for the Community, and the 'disproportionate contribution to security and peace that a settlement of the Arab-Israel dispute could bring', made it essential for every effort to be devoted to bringing a settlement nearer. The British Presidency would continue to build on the basis laid down in earlier Community statements (see pp 202-3, 1980) and on contacts made by the Luxembourg and the Netherlands Presidencies. The Community's task was to persuade all who would listen of 'the importance of a peaceful solution and the need for each side to accept the rights of the other, in accordance with the two fundamental and mutually balancing principles set out at Venice [in 1980]'.

A second example of political co-operation on the move was the initiative on Afghanistan announced by the European Council on 30 June (see below).

Lord Carrington said that the gap between the Community's potential influence in the world and the achievements on political co-operation was 'still too wide'. The British Presidency would carry on the task of strengthening the existing arrangements for political co-operation, and he attached particular importance to it.

Conclusion

In conclusion Lord Carrington said that the achievements and the progress of the last 25 years were astonishing, given the different political and economic structures and the varied historical traditions of the member states. 'This progress was achieved often painfully and in conditions of tension and near crisis. Too often the agreements of the Community pass unnoticed and it is only the headlines about clashes and confrontations that are remembered. But in the sweep of history, it is the progress that counts and the difficulties that are forgotten.'

The success or failure of the Community had become increasingly important to the world as a whole, and resolution of its internal problems was essential if it were to make the contribution to security and peace that the world required and that it alone was capable of offering. Lord Carrington continued: 'Britain is committed to playing its full part in this common enterprise in which we have all invested such high hopes. During our Presidency we shall shoulder our responsibilities in the knowledge that the best contribution we can make is to discharge our duties efficiently, fairly and in the spirit of loyalty to the European ideal without which no progress can be made.'

EUROPEAN COUNCIL

Among the topics discussed by the European Council in Luxembourg on 29 and 30 June were the economic situation, a proposal –

initiated by Britain – for an international conference on the question of Afghanistan, and the Middle East.

Prime Minister's Statement

Reporting to the House of Commons on 1 July (*Hansard*, Vol 7, No 132, cols 867-75), the Prime Minister, Mrs Margaret Thatcher, said that the Council had seen 'the first cautious signs of limited improvement in the business cycle, even though inflation and unemployment [had] by no means been brought under control'. All participants had agreed on the need to overcome unemployment and inflation and return to a situation of economic growth, stability and satisfactory levels of employment. Although national governments had the major responsibility for tackling these problems, Mrs Thatcher said that the effectiveness of their action could be increased by 'coordination within a Community framework'; heads of Government were particularly concerned that 'full use should be made of the Community's financial instruments and of the facilities of the European Investment Bank to promote the flow of productive investment, including the growth potential in small and medium businesses'. Recognising that the changing pattern of world trade meant structural changes in member states' own industries, the participants had agreed that 'the focus should be on investment in industries with potential for the future rather than on economic activities that [were] bound to decline in importance'. Agreement had also been reached on the need 'to improve the Community's internal market for both goods and for services such as insurance and air fares'.

On trade, the Prime Minister said that the Council had discussed 'the threat to the smooth functioning of the world trading system' arising from 'the excessive concentration of Japanese exports on sensitive sectors', and had stressed that the Japanese market should be open to foreign trade. Heads of Government had also approved the recent report of the Foreign Affairs Council on North-South policy [which stresses the need to devise international solutions to problems of food production, energy, trade and raw materials].

Turning to the Community budget and changes in the Common Agricultural Policy, the Prime Minister referred to a recent report by the Commission and said that a satisfactory impetus had been given to further work. The first stage was to clarify the Commission's document to see, for example, how the budgetary proposals could affect each member state. Noting that Britain had just assumed the Presidency of the Council of Ministers, Mrs Thatcher said that it was the Government's intention to do all it could to press forward with these discussions with the objective of reaching agreement within the timetable laid down in May 1980 (see pp 182-3, 1980).

The Prime Minister said that, following a British initiative, the Council had approved and published a proposal on Afghanistan with the aim of establishing the framework for a political solution (see below). Member states believed that it offered 'a reasonable basis for the peaceful solution of a problem which [remained] an important cause of international tension'. The initiative, designed to restore the 'independent and non-aligned status of Afghanistan', was a constructive and distinctive way to mark the start of Britain's Presidency of the Council of Ministers.

Afghanistan

In its statement on Afghanistan the Council noted with deep concern that the situation there was still an important cause of international tension, that Soviet troops remained, and that the sufferings of the Afghan people continued to increase. The time had come 'for a fresh attempt to open the way to a political solution to the problem'. It therefore proposed that 'an international conference should be convened as soon as possible, for example in October or November 1981, and that the conference should consist of two stages, each stage being an integral part of the conference'.

The purpose of stage one would be 'to work out international arrangements designed to bring about the cessation of external intervention and the establishment of safeguards to prevent such intervention in the future and thus to create conditions in which Afghanistan's independence and non-alignment [could] be assured'. Participants would include the five permanent members of the United Nations Security Council (Britain, the United States, the Soviet Union, France and the People's Republic of China), Pakistan, India, Iran and the Secretaries-General of the United Nations and the Islamic Conference.

The purpose of stage two would be 'to reach agreement on the implementation of the international arrangements worked out in stage one and on all other matters designed to assure Afghanistan's future as an independent and non-aligned state'. Stage two would be attended by the participants in stage one, together with representatives of the Afghan people.

In conclusion, the Council said that it was convinced that its proposal offered 'a constructive way forward' and called upon the international community to support it fully 'with the aim of reducing international tension and ending human suffering'.

On 6 July Lord Carrington visited Moscow to discuss the Council's proposals with the Soviet Foreign Minister, Mr Andrei Gromyko. Reporting on the discussions to the European Parliament during his address of 8 July (see p 198), Lord Carrington said that he had emphasised that the problem of Afghanistan was one of global significance, that a solution 'was essential in the interests of peace, stability and the development of East-West relations', and that the complete withdrawal of Soviet troops was an essential element of any solution. Mr Gromyko had taken the view that the Community's proposal was 'unrealistic' because the main problem was intervention by others in the affairs of Afghanistan, because it had not been stated that the present Afghan regime should participate at the outset, and because the proposed composition of the conference was unsatisfactory. These arguments, Lord Carrington stated, had not been convincing. Mr Gromyko, however, had not said that he

rejected the proposal, nor had he excluded further discussion. For his part, Lord Carrington continued, he had made it clear that the proposal which had received 'an encouraging degree of support in the international community', would remain on the table.

A similar report was made by Lord Carrington to the House of Lords on 7 July (*Hansard* (*HL*), Vol 422, No 112, cols 581-8). Answering questions, he made it clear that there could be no normalisation of relations between Europe and the Soviet Union until the problem of Afghanistan was solved and Soviet troops completely withdrawn.

Middle East

In its declaration on the Middle East, the Council said that the efforts undertaken by member states to promote the conclusion of a peaceful settlement (see pp 202-3, 1980) should be continued, and it decided to instruct Ministers 'to elaborate further the practical possibilities available to Europe to make an effective contribution towards a comprehensive peace settlement in the Middle East'. Appropriate contacts would be maintained with all parties concerned, including the United States.

As regards the attack by the Israeli Air Force on the Iraqi nuclear plant in June (see p 169), the Council endorsed the United Nations Security Council resolution condemning the raid.[1]

Cambodia

In a communiqué on Cambodia, the Council recalled its position favouring 'an independent and neutral Cambodia with a genuinely representative Government, free from any foreign military presence and maintaining friendly relations with all the countries of the region'. The Council declared its readiness to contribute to the success of the international conference on Cambodia called by the United Nations Secretary-General. [The conference opened in New York on 13 July.]

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY AID TO DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Britain's contribution towards, and support for, European Community aid to developing countries was outlined to Parliament by ministers in June.

Development Aid Policy

Addressing the House of Lords on 3 June (*Hansard (HL)*, Vol 420, No 89, cols 1229-33), the Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs, Lord Carrington, noted that the relationship between the developed and developing worlds had been the subject of intense discussion over the past year, and said that both governments and public opinion were united in recognising 'the urgent need for more effective ways of tackling the world's economic and social problems'. Official development assistance provided by Community member states was now approaching $12,000 million, more than half the total provided by Western aid donors and more than eight times that provided by the Soviet Union. Britain contributed more than 12 per cent of its aid budget (over £100 million) to Community aid programmes.

Although Britain would maintain emphasis on bilateral aid, which enabled it to bring to bear its long experience and depth of specialist knowledge, the Government attached 'high value' to the Community's aid programme, and Britain had had a considerable influence on its evolution. With British accession, for instance, trade privileges and access to Community aid funds had been extended to Commonwealth countries in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific. The second Lomé Convention [which came into effect in January 1981] now covered 61 countries, over half of which were members of the Commonwealth, with a total population of 300 million (see p 322, 1979). The Convention not only maintained privileged access to the Community market for sugar, bananas, rum and beef, but also incorporated unprecedented schemes to help to stabilise export earnings in key commodities and to assist mineral producers experiencing marketing difficulties. This record of solid achievement contrasted 'very favourably' with that made through other fora and negotiations.

Turning to future policy, Lord Carrington said that the Government would continue to press for desirable and practical improvements such as speeding up the rate of disbursement of funds; and encouraging co-financing (including involvement by the oil-exporting countries) under the programme for countries not covered by the Lomé Convention (that is, non-associated states). There was also further scope for the evolution of a Community development policy on a world-wide basis, something which successive British Governments had worked for. In 1976 these efforts had resulted in the introduction of an aid programme for non-associates, and this had since grown steadily from £13 million to over £80 million in 1981, most of it going to the poorest countries of Asia.

Developing countries needed trade, investment and technology as well as aid, Lord Carrington continued. Britain made a substantial contribution in all these fields, and, among its Community partners, was second only to the Federal Republic of Germany in the share of its manufactured imports which came from developing countries. In 1979 it had provided more private direct investment to developing countries than France and the Federal Republic combined, and this investment was often accompanied by an invaluable flow of technology. Moreover, Britain's aid programme, which was of very high quality, would amount to over £1,000 million in the financial year 1981-82, and in 1980 over 60 per cent of bilateral aid had gone to the poorest countries, nearly all in grant form (see also pp 165-7). Britain had also supported major changes in the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund: the capital of the Bank was being doubled to $80,000 million,

[1] On 19 June the Security Council adopted unanimously a resolution condemning Israel's attack as being 'a clear violation of the Charter of the United Nations and the norms of international conduct'. It also called upon Israel 'to refrain in the future from any such acts or threats thereof'.

while, in 1980, the Fund's loan commitment to developing countries had trebled and its quotas[1] raised by 50 per cent. Britain and other members of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development were together making available an extra $1,000 million, Saudi Arabia had agreed to lend up to $12,000 million over three years, and special help had been agreed for those countries facing a sharp increase in the cost of cereal imports. These were 'substantial advances' and deserved due recognition.

In conclusion, Lord Carrington said that the Community's aid policy and associated trade arrangements were solid evidence that the Community and its member states were not turning their backs on the world's poor when fashioning their own common policies: 'The Lomé Convention and other institutional arrangements provide a direct channel through which the views, hopes and fears of many developing countries can be – and are – vigorously put to the Community: and when put forward, they are not neglected.'

Food Aid

During a debate on 15 June concerning the Community's food aid programme (*Hansard*, Vol 6, No 121, cols 815-35), the Minister for Overseas Development, Mr Neil Marten, said that this aid was one of the main instruments of its development policy and that the food was provided to developing countries all over the world. The cost this year would be about £200 million, about one-fifth of which would fall on Britain's aid programme.

Pointing out that the origin of food aid had been a desire to dispose of agricultural surpluses, Mr Marten said that Britain had striven to shift the basis of food aid and administration from surplus disposal to development. In 1977 Britain had succeeded in getting the Council of Ministers to adopt revised criteria for allotting aid and to improve its effectiveness. At the end of 1980 agreement was reached on multi-year forward commitments under which food aid would be used more directly, together with European Development Fund or non-associates' aid, to put specific development projects into effect; the Council had also agreed to provide a proportion of food aid to build up stocks when a developing country was setting up a well-defined, socially useful and economically sound food security programme.

Summing up the Government's views, Mr Marten said that the volume of Community food aid was large enough and that the distribution of aid was now broadly satisfactory as between poorer and wealthier countries: in 1980, for instance, 90 per cent of cereals and 85 per cent of dairy products distributed in aid went to poorer countries, the Commonwealth receiving 29 per cent and 30 per cent respectively. The use of food aid, however, could be further improved by seeing that it reinforced sensible policies for agriculture and food production, rather than sometimes tending to undermine them. Britain also wanted more food aid bought from developing countries, such as Zimbabwe, and more in the form of local products suitable to the people's diet.

Background Information

The Community's food aid takes the form mainly of cereals and dairy products, though small quantities of sugar have been provided to the United Nations Relief and Works Agency and rapeseed oil to the People's Republic of China. Under the 1980 Food Aid Convention, which provides a guaranteed total of cereals aid pledges of 7·6 million tonnes each year until mid-1983 from donor members, the Community has agreed to provide 1·65 million tonnes. Of this, 927,663 tonnes will be paid for from the Community's budget and the remainder provided bilaterally by the member states. Britain's share is about 117,000 tonnes. Dairy products aid, which is entirely paid for from the Community's budget, consists of 150,000 tonnes of milk powder and 45,000 tonnes of butteroil annually.

[1]Members contribute to the Fund's resources in accordance with national quotas which also determine the amount a member may draw from the Fund. Quotas are increased regularly to take account of the growth of world trade and inflation.

Falkland Islands

The legitimacy of British sovereignty over the Falkland Islands and the Government's determination to achieve a settlement of the dispute with Argentina acceptable to the Falkland Islanders were reaffirmed at the end of June.

Speaking in a debate in the House of Lords on 30 June (*Hansard*, Vol 422, No 107, cols 181-7), Lord Trefgarne, Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State at the Department of Trade, pointed out that the Falkland Islands had been settled continuously for nearly 150 years by people of British stock and that their government, legal system and way of life were all unmistakeably British. All British Governments had rejected the territorial claim on the islands by Argentina 'absolutely and without reserve'. Moreover, Britain had consistently supported at the United Nations the islanders' right to self-determination and would continue to do so.

The dispute, however, had hindered the proper development and diversification of the islands' economy and was preventing the exploitation of natural resources in the surrounding ocean, and its unsettling effect had led to a continuing decline in an already tiny population. Britain's prime aim, therefore, was to resolve the dispute, and successive Governments, together with the islanders, had sought to establish, through negotiations with Argentina, whether a solution could be found which would be acceptable to all parties. These negotiations had been held on the strict understanding that the British position on sovereignty was not prejudiced.

Britain, Lord Trefgarne continued, was particularly interested in discussions on economic co-operation, but all attempts to secure Argentina's

agreement to such talks while leaving the sovereignty issue on one side had failed. Following exploratory talks in April 1980 the Government had taken the view that sovereignty should be discussed, and, since an important premise of its policy was that nothing should be done which would be unacceptable to the islanders, had then sought the latter's views (see p 361, 1980). Following this [in January 1981], the Island Council voted in favour of continuing discussions and gave the British Government a mandate to try to negotiate a 'freeze' of the dispute, namely 'a mutual agreement to put the sovereignty issue on one side for an agreed period of time, during which both sides could co-operate to develop the islands' resources'. This proposal, however, had been rejected by Argentina in February.

Reaffirming the Government's belief in a negotiated settlement, Lord Trefgarne stated that further discussions should be held in which the sovereignty issue would have to be covered. Before any proposals were made, however, the Government needed a new mandate from the islanders and was waiting to hear from them. As to the shape of a final settlement, Lord Trefgarne said that Britain would insist on certain basic requirements: the preservation of the British administration, legal system and way of life for at least several generations; provisions for assisting the islands' development and the exploitation of their resources; and cast-iron guarantees, from the United Nations or other suitable bodies, that there would be no infringements of an agreement. Britain had also pledged itself, he added, to submit any agreement to the test of public opinion in the islands and to the British Parliament.

With regard to the economic aspects of the dispute, Lord Trefgarne emphasised that the present situation offered few benefits and many disadvantages. As long as the dispute continued it would be extremely difficult to attract new development and investment and impossible fully to exploit the islands' maritime resources, notably fisheries and any oil which might exist on the continental shelf. Only the ending of the dispute would establish the conditions of confidence necessary for commercial companies to investigate and exploit these possibilities.

South Africa: Sporting Links

The Government's attitude towards sporting links with South Africa and its opposition to both apartheid and the United Nations Special Committee Against Apartheid's blacklist of sportsmen and sportswomen were outlined by the government minister responsible for sport, Mr Hector Munro, in the House of Commons on 3 June. Britain's commitment to the 1977 Commonwealth statement discouraging sporting contacts with South Africa was reaffirmed.

Mr Munro, a Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State in the Department of the Environment, was replying to some points raised during an adjournment debate (*Hansard*, Vol 5, No 1209, cols 1044-52) which referred to the progress made in South Africa towards fully integrated sport, to the need to encourage South Africa to continue that progress, and to the damaging effects of the blacklist on international sport, on reforms now being introduced into South Africa, and on the Commonwealth in general.

The UN Special Committee, whose membership has consisted almost exclusively of developing and East European countries, was set up in 1962 to monitor South Africa's racial policies. Its recommendations are not binding. The blacklist was published by the United Nations Centre Against Apartheid, a subsidiary of the UN Special Committee. Other blacklists have been published by the London-based South African Non-Racial Olympic Committee.

British Policy

Mr Munro explained that British policy rested on the 1977 Commonwealth Governments' statement at Gleneagles (p 261, 1977) which requires the signatories to take every practical step, in accordance with their laws, to discourage their sportsmen and sportswomen from playing against South Africa. At the same time, Britain is firmly pledged to the maintenance of the established autonomy and independence of sport and sporting organisations and to the traditional freedom of its citizens to travel and work when and where they wish.

The Government's commitment to the Gleneagles statement has been reaffirmed many times. So has its abhorrence of apartheid. However, Mr Munro explained, in a free and democratic society, it is up to the sporting bodies and individuals themselves to accept or reject the principles behind the statement: the Government can only 'advise and persuade'. It does not have, nor does it want, the powers that would allow it to take additional steps to prevent contacts taking place. Furthermore, it does not believe that the 1977 statement requires action against the nationals of another country. Though it is an undeniable right of every country to refuse entry to non-nationals whose presence is considered undesirable, the Government 'will not accept the use of such powers simply to penalise sportsmen'. Nor will it support any proposal that would oblige it to impose limitations on the movement of British sportsmen and sportswomen, or to interfere with individual liberties. This would lead to a complete polarisation of international sport. Therefore, continued Mr Munro, the Government condemns the blacklist, and hopes that sportsmen and their governing bodies will try to persuade the relevant organisations to resist these political pressures coming from the UN Special Committee.

Commenting on reports of progress towards greater integration of sport in South Africa, Mr Munro welcomed this but pointed out that the situation varied considerably from sport to sport. He continued: 'When the Government are persuaded that the progress towards integration in sport in South Africa warrants it, we shall certainly seek a review of the Gleneagles agreement,

but we are not yet persuaded that this time has arrived.'

Shorter Notes

THE CROWN AGENTS

Details about the work of the Crown Agents for Oversea Governments and Administrations in 1980 are given in the Chairman's Review and Accounts.[1] The Agents, a statutory corporation, provide financial, professional and commercial services for over 300 public authorities in nearly 100 countries. These comprise procurement and engineering, money management and investment, recruitment, project management, services in connection with the production of stamps and currency, and help in administering Britain's bilateral aid to developing countries.

Examples of services in 1980 included the purchase of electrical equipment; the provision of technical staff to assist the operation of generating stations in Guyana; the design of a fishery protection vessel for the Solomon Islands; the supply to several countries of vehicles such as fire appliances, tractors, and Land-rovers; the shipping of railway equipment and spares; road construction projects; and consultancy projects concerning hospital planning and equipment.

The Agents are actively involved in Britain's bilateral aid programme and in 1980 administered 198 loans and grants totalling £1,800 million on behalf of the Overseas Development Administration of the Foreign and Commonwealth Office. Investment funds handled for clients in international financial markets amounted to £2,400 million.

[1]Available free from the Crown Agents, 4 Millbank, London SW1P 3JD.

BBC EXTERNAL SERVICES

A long-term programme to improve the audibility of the external services of the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) was announced by the Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs, Lord Carrington, in the House of Lords on 29 June. The new programme includes the feeding of existing relay stations by satellite by 1985, the setting up of eight modern short-wave transmitters in Britain also by 1985, with a further six by 1987, and the establishment of new relay stations to cover East Africa and the Far East.

A proportion of the costs of the new programme is to be met from the current operations and the Government has requested the BBC to make net savings in these of about £3 million a year from 1982-83 onwards. The savings will involve a reduction of 58 hours a week out of a total of 726 hours of broadcasts in all languages. Services which will be terminated include the transcription services, and broadcasts in French to France, in Spanish to Spain, and in Italian and Maltese. Speaking of proposed cuts in services to the Third World, Lord Carrington said that the Government had chosen from each continent a service directed to one country or confined area only: namely Portuguese to Brazil; Burmese; and Somali. In no case did the ending of the vernacular service imply any diminution of the excellent relations which Britain enjoyed with the country concerned. In all cases, said Lord Carrington, 'not only will the World Service in English continue – it will be heard more clearly as a result of the steps we plan to take to improve audibility'.

Source: *Hansard* (*HL*), Vol 422, No 106, written answers, cols 77-8.

Railway Electrification

The Government has indicated that progress on railway electrification will depend on the achievement of the changes necessary to secure manpower reductions and higher productivity. The British Railways Board is being invited to submit a ten-year programme of electrification schemes only for those potentially profitable main line routes where the benefits clearly justify the investment.

The Secretary of State for Transport, Mr Norman Fowler, made a statement on railway electrification in the House of Commons on 22 June (*Hansard*, Vol 7, No 125, cols 21-2). He said that the Government had completed its examination of the report on main line electrification (see p 77). It had reviewed the prospects for the freight and inter-city businesses which could benefit from electrification, in order to judge the strength of the case for further major investment. The examination had had to take place at a time when the British Railways Board's financial position gave serious cause for concern, with a worsening of its trading position; immediate substantial economy measures were required. The Government would continue to support the Board's efforts to meet the difficulties it had to face, but it would 'expect the industry's management and unions to play a full part in bringing about the necessary improvements'.

On freight Mr Fowler said that the Government's aim was that 'as much freight as can economically do so should go by rail', but the business's future depended crucially on reducing its costs. If the Board's efforts to eliminate uneconomic capacity and to secure new agreements on working practices did not produce results quickly, the rail freight business would continue to shrink. Only if cost reductions required were achieved would there be enough freight traffic on the railways to contribute significantly to the case for electrification.

The Government's policy, Mr Fowler continued, was that 'subsidy should only go to socially necessary passenger services, such as rural and commuter services' and that 'the inter-city rail business, which could benefit from electrification, should be fully commercial'. In spite of large-scale investment, the inter-city business had not made progress towards earning an adequate return on the assets employed and 'immediate steps must therefore be taken to match the capacity offered closer to profitable demand. Given the necessary measures, services comprising the majority of inter-city business should be able to support new investment and win traffic on a commercial basis.' Accordingly, he was asking the Board to bring forward plans for an inter-city business that would achieve a fully commercial performance by 1985 and to start on the necessary changes immediately.

Given the necessary support in all parts of the industry, these measures could succeed, Mr Fowler declared. 'There is no alternative if there is to be a healthy future for the large commercial railway businesses, which will benefit their customers and those who work in them, and justify a selective programme of main line electrification.' The Government was not prepared to give an unconditional commitment to the electrification of an extensive network, and progress on electrification would depend on achieving the changes necessary to secure manpower reductions and higher productivity. He was therefore inviting the Board to prepare and submit a ten-year programme of electrification schemes only of those potentially profitable main lines where it was clear that the benefits could justify the investment. These should be presented together with the new commercial plans required for the businesses. Approval of each successive electrification project would be 'conditional on the profitability of the investment in question and on the achievement of necessary improvements in productivity'.

Shorter Notes

EXCISE DUTY CHANGES

Increases in the excise duties on tobacco, betting and gaming were announced by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir Geoffrey Howe, in the House of Commons on 2 July. These would offset the loss in revenue arising from the reduction in the duty on diesel road fuel (derv) of 10 pence per gallon (inclusive of value added tax) announced by the Chancellor on 30 April during the Committee Stage of the Finance Bill (*Hansard*, Vol 3, No 94, col 933) and effective from 2 July.

The increases in tobacco duty (effective from 8 July) would lead to a rise of 3 pence (inclusive of value added tax) in the price of a packet of 20 cigarettes with comparable increases in the prices of other tobacco products. The yield would be about £65 million in the 1981-82 financial year.

The off-course rate of general betting duty would be increased from 7·5 per cent to 8 per cent (effective from 12 July), the bingo duty would be raised from 7·5 per cent to 10 per cent (effective from 27 July) and the charge for all gaming machine licences would be increased (from 1 October). These changes would raise about £20 million in the 1981-82 financial year.

The increases were approved by the House of Commons on 7 July, on tobacco by 113 votes to 40, on off-course betting by 109 to 22, on bingo by 106 to 19 and on gaming machine licences by 97 to 30.

Source: *Hansard*, Vol 7, No 133, cols 1,007-9.

CO-OPERATIVE DEVELOPMENT AGENCY

The Government is to provide further finance for the Co-operative Development Agency, while modifying its role so that it is more selective in its activities. The Agency, which was established to promote the principles and practice of the co-operative movement (see pp 175-6, 1978), has been funded by a grant of £900,000 over the three-year period to 31 August 1981. Announcing that approval would be sought from Parliament to raise the limit on grants by a further £600,000, the Government said that the Agency needed to become more effective and reduce its level of expenditure. It was proposed that the Agency should concentrate more on promotional work. The further grant would give it more time to explore the possibilities of becoming financially independent of the Government.

Source: Department of Industry press notice, 24.6.81.

PRESTEL

Prestel, the world's first public viewdata service (in which computerised information is transmitted along telephone lines for display on a television screen in the form of words, figures and simple graphics), was extended into a world viewdata service on 1 July. According to British Telecom, selling will be concentrated initially in seven countries: Australia, the Federal Republic of Germany, Hong Kong, the Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland and the United States. The extension follows the successful conclusion of a market trial of an international Prestel service which involved some 400 users in 23 countries experimenting with Prestel for obtaining specialist or general information, or for closed user group applications (under which certain information, including some that might be confidential, may be made accessible only to authorised users). Users in the seven countries and Britain will have access to closed user group facilities and specialist information on shipping and commodities, together with all the information held in the Prestel computers for the British service (about 185,000 pages). Information providers from all over the world will be able to join the growing number (now 560) of organisations providing information available to Prestel users. Logica, an international computer and communications consultancy company, has been subcontracted by British Telecom to arrange overseas marketing for the world viewdata service.

Source: British Telecom press and broadcasting notice 1.7.81.

[For further information on Prestel see COI fact sheet *Viewdata*, No 113/FSI/81.]

Census of Population 1981: Preliminary Results

Preliminary results of the 1981 census of population show that since the previous census in 1971 the population of England and Wales has risen by only 0·5 per cent (the smallest intercensal increase recorded) and that of Scotland has fallen by 2·2 per cent. Wide variations in population growth occurred within the countries, with decreases in the population of large cities and conurbations and increases in the suburban fringes and more rural areas. The growth in the more remote rural areas exceeded that of the 1960s.

Provisional results from the census held on 5 April (see pp 119-20) were published on 30 June (only 86 days after the census).[1] (First results from Northern Ireland are expected later in 1981.) There were some 55·7 million people in Britain on census night (including mid-1980 estimates for Northern Ireland – see Table 1), compared with 55·5 million recorded at the previous census in 1971. The rise of about 160,000 is considerably less than the increase of 2·8 million between the 1961 and 1971 censuses.

The provisional figures will be replaced by final corrected results contained in the detailed county reports for England and Wales and for each region of Scotland which will be published from November 1981 until mid-1982, after which reports will be produced on particular census topics. It is planned that the main results should be available by 1984.

Some of the main findings of the preliminary reports are described below.

England and Wales

The population of England and Wales on census night was 49 million, some 260,000 (0·5 per cent) more than in 1971. Population growth in the 1970s was considerably less than in the previous two decades and represents the smallest ever absolute or percentage increase since censuses began in 1801. After a steady increase in population in the 1950s, the annual population estimates indicate that the growth rate started to fall in the mid-1960s and from about 1973 to 1978 there was little or no growth; only since about 1978 has the population slowly risen again. The variations mainly reflect fluctuations in the number of births; since the early 1960s changes in net external migration have been another but much less important factor in reducing growth.

Females (25·2 million) outnumbered males (23·8 million) by 1·4 million, representing a ratio of 1,057 females to every 1,000 males. This ratio has been falling steadily since the first world war (1914-18) and is down to a level last reached in 1891. Substantial variations occur in the ratio by age and locality. For every 100 female babies born there are 105 male babies, but higher male mortality reduces and eventually removes this difference. In 1981 the age at which females start to outnumber males is about 50 and at the oldest ages the difference is large, with over twice as many females as males from about the age of 80 upwards.

Regional Changes

Wide variations in population change occurred between 1971 and 1981 (see Table 2), and were mostly due to changes in the levels of net migration into or out of the regions. Three regions of England had relatively large gains – East Anglia (11·7 per cent), the South West (6 per cent) and the East Midlands (4·8 per cent) – and the increase in Wales (2·2 per cent) was also above the national average. The largest percentage loss was in the North West (2·9 per cent) followed by the North (1·4 per cent), while the largest absolute losses were in the South East and the North West. In the South East the fall of 756,000 in Greater London was only partly offset by the increase of 555,000 in the rest of the region.

District Changes

The broad pattern of population change by district is that the population of large cities decreased while that of the surrounding areas and the more rural areas grew (see Table 3). All the conurbations recorded a decline in their population between 1971 and 1981. Greater London's population declined by 10·1 per cent to 6·7 million, the first time it has been below 7 million since the 1901 census. The largest percentage decrease was for inner London, about 18 per cent, the biggest fall within inner London being in Kensington and Chelsea (26 per cent). Of the 12 districts

[1] *Census 1981: Preliminary Report – England and Wales.* Office of Population Censuses and Surveys. HMSO, £4·80. ISBN 0 11 690755 X. *Census 1981 Scotland: Preliminary Report.* Registrar General Scotland. HMSO, Edinburgh, £6·70. ISBN 0 11 491752 3.

Table 1
Population Present on Census Night

Thousands

	1841	1901	1931	1951	1961	1971	1981
England	14,868	30,509	37,359	41,159	43,461	46,018	46,221
Wales	1,046	2,019	2,593	2,599	2,644	2,731	2,790
Scotland	2,620	4,472	4,843	5,096	5,179	5,229	5,117
Northern Ireland	1,649	1,237	1,243*	1,371	1,425	1,536	1,547†
Britain	20,183	38,237	46,038	50,225	52,709	55,515	55,676
of whom, males	*9,819*	*18,492*	*22,060*	*24,118*	*25,481*	*26,952*	*27,050*
females	*10,364*	*19,745*	*23,979*	*26,107*	*27,228*	*28,562*	*28,626*

*Estimate.

†1980 mid-year estimate. The 1981 figure for Britain is the sum of the census results for England, Wales and Scotland, and the 1980 estimate for Northern Ireland.

Note: Differences between totals and the sums of their component parts are due to rounding.

Table 2
Regional Population Change in England and Wales 1971-81

	Population present on census night 1981 (thousands)	Population change 1971-81 (thousands)	(per cent)	Population change 1961-71 (per cent)
Regions of England:				
North	3,097	–45	–1·4	+0·7
Yorkshire and Humberside	4,854	–2	–0·1	+3·7
East Midlands	3,807	+174	+4·8	+9·4
East Anglia	1,865	+196	+11·7	+13·6
South East	16,729	–202	–1·2	+5·9
Greater London	*6,696*	*–756*	*–10·1*	*–6·8*
Remainder of South East	*10,033*	*+555*	*+5·9*	*+18·5*
South West	4,326	+246	+6·0	+10·6
West Midlands	5,136	+27	+0·5	+7·4
North West	6,406	–191	–2·9	+2·6
England	46,221	+203	+0·4	+5·9
Wales	2,790	+59	+2·2	+3·3
England and Wales	49,011	+262	+0·5	+5·7

in England and Wales reporting population falls of over 15 per cent, ten were inner London boroughs. Each of the principal metropolitan cities also recorded falls in population: Manchester by 17 per cent to 449,200, Liverpool by 16 per cent to 510,300, Newcastle upon Tyne by 10 per cent to 277,700, Birmingham by 8 per cent to 1,006,900, Sheffield by 6 per cent to 536,800, and Leeds by 5 per cent to 705,000. Outside the central cores of the conurbations, the outer London boroughs and the remainder of the metropolitan districts showed smaller population declines of 5 and 2 per cent respectively.

In contrast to the combined loss from Greater London and the metropolitan counties of about 1·25 million people between 1971 and 1981, the non-metropolitan counties gained about 1·5 million. However, the population of the more densely populated, wholly urban non-metropolitan districts also usually declined, although the population of districts containing smaller cities fell relatively less than that of the large cities. Other categories of non-metropolitan districts showed overall increases. This was fairly small (1 per cent) for industrial districts in Wales and the three northern regions of England, while industrial districts in the rest of England grew by 5 per cent; even so the north-south disparity in the population growth of industrial districts was much less in the 1970s than in the 1960s when growth in the south was considerably greater than in the north. The population of districts including new towns grew more rapidly than most, on average by 15 per cent, and the two districts recording the highest rates of growth were both new towns: Milton Keynes in Buckinghamshire (85 per cent) and Redditch in Hereford and Worcester (63 per cent). The predominantly remoter, largely rural districts were the only category in which population growth in the 1970s was greater than in the 1960s. Growth in these areas exceeded the growth rate for the more accessible rural districts, whereas in the 1960s the rate of increase had been only half that of the latter category. Remoter districts where the population rose by over 10 per cent were to be found in counties as far apart as Cornwall, Suffolk

Table 3
Population Change by District in England and Wales 1971-81

	Population present on census night 1981 (thousands)	Population change 1971-81 (thousands)	(per cent)	Population change 1961-71 (per cent)
Greater London boroughs:	5,696	−756	−10·1	−6·8
Inner London	2,497	−535	−17·7	−13·2
Outer London	4,199	−221	−5·0	−1·8
Metropolitan districts:	11,235	−546	−4·6	+0·5
Principal cities*	3,486	−386	−10·0	−8·4
Others	7,749	−160	−2·0	+5·5
Non-metropolitan districts:	31,080	+1,564	+5·3	+11·8
Large cities†	2,763	−149	−5·1	−1·4
Smaller cities	1,687	−55	−3·2	+2·2
Industrial districts:				
Wales and the three northern regions of England	3,348	+42	+1·3	+3·7
Rest of England	3,320	+158	+5·0	+12·1
Districts that include new towns	2,165	+283	+15·1	+21·8
Resort and seaside retirement districts	3,335	+156	+4·9	+12·2
Other urban, mixed urban-rural and more accessible rural districts:				
Outside South East	3,793	+307	+8·8	+21·9
In South East	5,656	+354	+6·7	+22·1
Remoter, largely rural, districts	5,013	+468	+10·3	+9·7

*Birmingham, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Newcastle upon Tyne and Sheffield.
†Over 175,000 population in 1971.

and Humberside. Ten counties recorded a population increase of over 1 per cent a year between 1971 and 1981, the five highest increases being Buckinghamshire (1·75 per cent), Cambridgeshire, Cornwall (including the Isles of Scilly), Northamptonshire, and Hereford and Worcester.

Scotland

The population in Scotland on census night was 5,117,000, about 112,000 less than in 1971 (see Table 1). The pattern of births during the 1970s was similar to that in England and Wales, with a natural increase (excess of births over deaths) of 58,600 between 1971 and 1981 despite a decrease in the years ended 30 June 1977 and 1978. Widely varying net losses from migration took place in each year, resulting in an estimated net loss during the decade of 170,000.

Population change also varied widely by local government district. Glasgow had the largest decrease, with its population falling by 22 per cent to 763,200 in 1981. The other city districts also recorded declines: Dundee by 9 per cent to 180,100, Edinburgh by 8 per cent to 436,300, and Aberdeen by 4 per cent to 203,600. Ten other districts showed an overall fall in population, ranging from under 1 per cent in Roxburgh to nearly 12 per cent in Clydebank. All other local government districts had an increase in population. Two main factors appear to have contributed to the increases: a shift of population from cities to the surrounding areas, and population changes associated with developments related to the oil industry as reflected in, for example, substantial increases in population in the Shetland Islands (54 per cent) and Ross and Cromarty (35 per cent).

DOCUMENTATION

Government and Administration

Efficiency in the Civil Service. An interim report on the Government's progress in increasing the efficiency of the Civil Service (see pp 179-80, 1980). Since taking office, the Government has reduced the number of civil servants by 42,000, with a saving in pay costs of about £270 million a year; a further reduction of 60,000 is scheduled for the next three years, with an estimated further saving of about £400 million a year. Cmnd 8293. HMSO, £2·10. ISBN 0 10 182930 2.

External Affairs and Defence

Preparation for the United Kingdom Presidency of the EEC Council of Ministers. Minutes of the Foreign and Commonwealth Secretary's evidence on 2 June before the House of Lords Select Committee on the European Community. HMSO, £2·20. ISBN 0 10 419281 X.

Budget Reform. Twenty-ninth report (with minutes of evidence) of the House of Lords Select Committee on the European Communities Session 1980-81. HMSO, £2·60. ISBN 0 10 419981 4.

The United Kingdom Defence Programme: The Way Forward (see p 195). Cmnd 8288. HMSO, £1·70. ISBN 0 10 182882 0.

Strategic Nuclear Weapons Policy. Fourth Report, together with minutes of evidence, from the House of Commons' Defence Committee, 1980-81. HMSO, £10·60. ISBN 0 10 203681 0.

Agreement between . . . Britain and . . . Malaysia for the Promotion and Protection of Investments. Cmnd 8269. HMSO, £1·10. ISBN 0 10 182690 7.

Economic and Scientific Affairs

World Invisible Trade. June 1981. Contains figures for 1979 with some comparison of trends since 1969. In 1979 Britain was second only to the United States in terms of both gross receipts (excluding miscellaneous government transactions and transfers) – having risen from third position in 1978 – and also net receipts. Committee on Invisible Exports, Seventh Floor, The Stock Exchange, London EC2N 2HH. £6.

Measuring the Effectiveness of Regional Industrial Policy. Fifth Report from the House of Commons Committee of Public Accounts, together with the proceedings of the Committee, minutes of evidence and an appendix. Session 1980-81. Department of Industry, Scottish Economic Planning Department and Welsh Office. HMSO, £4·40. ISBN 0 10 220681 3.

Tenth Report on Competition Policy. European Community. Available from HMSO, £4·50. ISBN 92 825 2211 3.

National Electronics Review 1980-81. National Electronics Council. The review includes a number of articles on developments in electronics in Britain. Available from the Council at Abell House, John Islip Street, London SW1P 4LN. £3.

Radioactive Waste Management Advisory Committee: Second Annual Report. Department of the Environment. HMSO, £3·90. ISBN 0 11 751549 3.

North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board. Report and Accounts 1980-81. Available free from the NSHEB, 16 Rothesay Terrace, Edinburgh EH3 7SE.

South of Scotland Electricity Board. Report and Accounts 1980-81. Available free from the SSEB, Cathcart House, Glasgow G44 4BE.

Severn-Trent Water Authority, East Worcestershire Waterworks Company and the South Staffordshire Waterworks Company. A report by the Monopolies and Mergers Commission. HMSO, £10·80. ISBN 0 10 233981 3*.

Road Accidents in Great Britain 1979. Department of Transport. HMSO, £5. ISBN 0 11 550421 4.

National Bus Company. Annual Report 1980. NBC. Available from HMSO, £1·50. ISBN 0 11 983210 0.

Roadside Advertising Services: a Report on the Supply in the United Kingdom of Roadside Advertising Services. Monopolies and Mergers Commission. HMSO, £5·70. ISBN 0 10 236581 4.

British Rail Hovercraft Ltd and Hoverlloyd Ltd. A Report on the Proposed Merger. Monopolies and Mergers Commission. HMSO, £3·60. ISBN 0 10 237481 3.

British Waterways Board. Annual Report and Accounts 1980. BWB. Available from HMSO, £2·50. ISBN 0 903218 24 0.

Viewdata. COI, No 113/FSI/81.

Social and Cultural Affairs

The Wedding of the Prince of Wales and the Lady Diana Spencer.
COI, No 108/FSB/81. Available in English, Dutch, French, German, Italian and Spanish.

Census 1981: Preliminary Report – England and Wales (see p 208). Office of Population Censuses and Surveys. HMSO, £4·80. ISBN 0 11 690755 X.

Census 1981 Scotland: Preliminary Report (see p 208). Registrar General Scotland. HMSO Edinburgh, £6·70. ISBN 0 11 491752 3.

Report of the Commissioner of Police of the Metropolis for the year 1980. HMSO, £6·40. ISBN 10 182540 4.

Compensating Employers for Statutory Sick Pay – A Consultative Document. The paper seeks views on two new options for compensating employers for providing a statutory minimum level of sick pay to their employees during the first eight weeks of sickness. The first proposals for the scheme were made in April 1980 (see p 144, 1980) and it is intended that it should operate from April 1983. Available from DHSS (Information Division), Block 4, Canons Park, Government Buildings, Honey Pot Lane, Stanmore HA7 1AY. 60p. ISBN 0 902 650 28 9.

West Indian Children in our Schools. Interim Report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Education of Children from Ethnic Minority Groups. The report concludes that a number of factors contribute to the under-achievement of many West Indian children. These include attitudes and expectations of teachers, aspects of the education system, and attitudes of parents. Topics examined include racial discrimination, pre-school provision, reading and languages, curriculum and teaching materials, examinations, and links between school and community. There are to be wide consultations on the report. The committee was established in 1979 under the chairmanship of Mr Anthony Rampton; over the next two years it will inquire into the educational needs and attainments of children from all ethnic minority groups under its new chairman, Lord Swann. Cmnd 8273. HMSO, £5·30. ISBN 0 10 182730 X.

Environmental Education: A Review. HMSO, £1·95. ISBN 0 11 270544 8.

Environmental Education: Sources of Information. HMSO, £2·95. ISBN 0 11 270545 6.

Fourth Report of the Equal Opportunities Commission for Northern Ireland, 1979-80. Belfast HMSO, £2·40. ISBN 0 10 231681 3.

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Printed in England by Brown Knight & Truscott Ltd
and Published by
HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE
£1.20 net

Annual subscription including indices and postage £18.60

H2705 Dd 8202844 K8 JULY/81 1980
ISBN 0 11 726390 7 Vol. 11 No. 7
ISSN 0039—6214